

Comparative study of some soil properties in forested and deforested areas in Cox's Bazar and Rangamati Districts, Bangladesh

M.A. Zaman • K.T. Osman • S. M. Sirajul Haque

Received: 2009-10-05 Accepted: 2009-12-31

© Northeast Forestry University and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2010

Abstract: The study dealt with the assessment of impact of deforestation on soil through a comparative analysis of soil physicochemical properties of natural forest and deforested areas. Soil samples from three depths (top, middle and bottom) under natural forest and nearby deforested areas were collected to investigate soil properties. Forest soils show no significant change in particle size distribution. Bulk density of forested soils shows the significant differences in top and middle layers. Soil pH in top and middle soil, organic matter in top soil and available phosphorus in middle soil of the forest site are found to be significantly higher than that of the deforested soils. Forest soils also have significantly higher level of exchangeable Ca^{2+} , K^{+} in top and middle soil and Mg^{2+} at all depth than those of deforested site. Exchangeable Na^{+} and cation exchange capacity (CEC) are observed unchanged in both sites. The results suggest that change in soil properties was more obvious in surface and sub surface portions of both areas. The study shows that deterioration of physico-chemical properties occurred due to deforestation.

Keywords: chemical characteristics; deforested soil; forest soil; physical characteristics

Introduction

Bangladesh has a total land area of 144 000 km², and almost 17% of the total is demarcated as forest land. However, the actual forest area is only about 871 000 ha, only about 6.69% of total land area, and the rest has been deforested (Mongabay 2000). With increasing population, the demand for wood further in-

creases. Land is also continually being cleared in Bangladesh to provide space for settlements and agriculture, and the rate of deforestation currently significantly exceeds the rate of forest renewal. From 1990 to 2005, Bangladesh lost 1.3% of its forest cover, around 11 000 ha (Mongabay 2000). Natural forest is disappearing very rapidly and at present a high proportion (46.9%) consists of forest plantations (FAO 2001). A survey also showed that an estimated 73 000 ha of natural forests have been lost due to encroachment for aquaculture, agriculture and other land uses (Hoque et al. 1997).

Ecologically natural forests of Bangladesh fall under three main types: Evergreen and semi-evergreen forests in the hilly areas, deciduous forests in the central terrace areas, and mangrove forests in the littoral zone (FAO 2000). The hill forests are mainly situated in the districts of Chittagong, Cox's Bazar, Rangamati, Khagrachari, Bandarban and Sylhet. The total area of the hill forest is 670 000 ha, about 4.54% of total area of Bangladesh (Anonymous 1992). The hill forests are ecologically more important and constitute more than half of the forests of the country. The dominant tree species are Garjan (*Dipterocarpus spp.*), Chapalish (*Artocarpus chaplasha*), Telsur (*Hopea odorata*), Tali (*Palaquium polyanthrum*), Kamdeb (*Callophyllum polyanthum*), Urium (*Mangifera sylvatica*), Jarul (*Legarstromia speciosa*), Civit (*Swintonia floribunda*), Toon (*Cedrela toona*), Banderhola (*Duabanga grandiflora*) etc. Moreover there are Muli bamboo (*Meloanna baccifera*), cane (*Calamus guruga*), climbers like Issarmul (*Aristolochia indica*), Jhum alu (*Dioscorea pentaphylla*) and fern, etc. in these forests. Hill forests in Bangladesh have been more severely depleted and degraded in volume, area, and quantity.

Deforestation has many significant ecological consequences including loss in biodiversity and soil quality. When a forest is lost or severely degraded, its capacity to function as regulators of the environment is also lost. Removal of forest vegetation alters soil physicochemical characteristics (Boyle 1975; Mroz et al. 1985). A number of studies reported that deforestation deteriorates soil quality through the loss of soil organic matter (Hajabbasi et al. 1997; Araujo et al. 2005), nitrogen and other nutrients (Lugo and Sanchez 1986; Araki 1992), cation exchange capacity (CEC) and exchangeable bases (Delgado et al. 1985; Ohta

The online version is available at <http://www.springerlink.com>

M.A. Zaman (✉) • K.T. Osman

Department of Soil Science, University of Chittagong, Chittagong-4331, Bangladesh. Email: akhtarcu@yahoo.com

S. M. Sirajul Haque

Institute of Forestry and Environmental Sciences, University of Chittagong, Chittagong-4331, Bangladesh

Responsible editor: Hu Yanbo

1990; Johnson et al. 1991; Saikh et al. 1998), reduction in porosity, infiltration and water holding capacity (Lu et al. 2002), increase in soil acidity, bulk density, soil erosion and runoff (Rasiah and Kay 1995) as well as loss of soil productivity (Moyo et al. 1993; Chidumayo 1989).

There are only a few reports on the deforestation and degradation of Bangladesh forests (Anonymous 1992; Hoque et al. 1997; Amin et al. 2002; Biswas and Choudhury 2007), but little information is available on the changes in soil properties due to deforestation. The objective of the present study was to assess the effects of deforestation on soil fertility in deforested hilly areas of Bangladesh.

Materials and methods

Study area

The study sites were located at Chakaria and Teknaf upazilla of Cox's Bazar district and Shitapahar of Rangamati district at Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHTs). Three natural forests and their adjacent deforested areas were included for the study. The study sites are Baraitoli (21°48'03"N–21°48'21"N; 92°04'29"E–92°04'43"E), Sitapahar (21°29'21"N–22°29'41"N; 92°10'20"E–92°10'29"E) and Jahazpura (21°1'429"N–21°1'879"N; 92°10'976"E–92°11'253"E), and the site characteristics are given in Table 1. Soils of the study sites were classified as brown hill soils (Brammer 1971). Climate in the region is tropical monsoon with mean annual temperature 25.7°C and mean annual rainfall 3,627 mm, most of which fall between May and October. The region experiences high humidity, except in the hot dry season, and winter with heavy dew and thick mist. Mean monthly relative humidity ranges between about 69% and 77% in the dry season (November to February) to about 84% and 86% in the rainy season during June to October (RSS 1976).

Table 1. Site characteristics of forested and deforested lands

Site		Altitude (m)	Position	Aspect	Slope (%)	Vegetation
Baraitoli	Forested	15	Lower slope	NW	12–25	Garjan, Jam
	Deforested	6	Lower slope	NW	30	herbs Shrubs
Sitapahar	Forested	49	crest	Hilltop	65	Mixed forest
	Deforested	45	crest	Hilltop	65	Barren
Jahazpura	Forested	4	Flat	hilltop	2	Garjan
	Deforested	4	Flat	hilltop	2	Barren

In Baraitoli of Chakaria, the dominant tree species are Garjan (*Dipterocarpus spp.*), and Jam (*Syzygium spp.*). In natural forest of Sitapahar at Rangamati, the vegetation is composed of Urium (*Mangifera sylvatica*), Kanak (*Schima wallichii*), Bhadi (*Lannea grandis*), Gab (*Diospyros peregrina*), Garjan (*Dipterocarpus spp.*), Chhatim (*Alstonia scholaris*), Jam (*Syzygium spp.*), Batna (*Quercus spp.*) and some other minor tree species. In the natural forest of Jahazpura at Teknaf, the dominant tree species are Garjan (*Dipterocarpus spp.*), but this forest also contains a few other tree species like Telsur (*Hopea odorata*), Gutgutiya (*Protium*

serratum), Chapalish (*Artocarpus chaplasha*), Boilam (*Anisoptera scaphula*), Urium (*Mangifera sylvatica*), Jarul (*Legarstromia speciosa*), Hargoza (*Dillenia pentagyna*), Horitoki (*Terminalia chebula*), Bohera (*Terminalia bellerica*), Hizol (*Barringtonia acutangula*) etc.

Soil sample and measurement

Soil profiles were dug in each site and soil samples were collected from 18 profiles (three natural forest sites, three deforested sites, three profiles from each site) for analysis. Soil samples were taken from three successive horizons of each profile at the depths of 0–15 cm (top), 15–55 cm (middle) and 55–85 cm (bottom). Soil samples were air-dried, and passed through 2.0 mm sieve.

Particle size distribution of the soils was determined by hydrometer method (Day 1965). Bulk density of soils was determined by core method as described by Blake (1965). Cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined after extraction with 1 N ammonium acetate solution (Black 1965). Soil pH was measured in soil-water suspension (1:2.5) using a corning glass electrode. Organic carbon, organic matter and total nitrogen were determined by wet-oxidation method of Walkley and Black (1934) and micro-Kjeldahl method (Jackson 1973), respectively. Exchangeable calcium and magnesium were determined by EDTA method, and potassium and sodium were determined using a flame photometer (Jackson 1973). Available phosphorus was extracted with Bray and Kurtz no.2 extractant and measured by SnCl_2 reduced molybdophosphoric blue color method using spectrophotometer (Jackson 1973). Significance of difference in soil properties between forested and deforested sites was tested by paired t test using Minitab (1996).

Results and discussion

Soil physical characteristics

Particle size of the soils was dominated by sand and did not significantly differ between forested and deforested sites (Table 2). Brammer (1971) reported that sand is the dominant particle in brown hill soils because they developed from sandstone parent materials. However, subsoils were to some extent finer. Clay migration has occurred in subsoil due to coarser texture and higher internal drainage. The deep and extensive root system of forest trees leaves huge macro and micro pores in the soil body to a greater depth. This could encourage clay migration throughout forest soil profile. During profile excavation, porosity was noticed to be in the higher range in the natural forest soil in comparison to that of the deforested barren site. This was in conformity with works of other investigators (Sahani and Behera 2001; Hajabbasi et al. 1997).

The bulk density of soils varied from 1.21 $\text{Mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ at top soil in forested site to 1.58 $\text{Mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ at bottom soil in deforested site (Table 2). The soils of surface and middle layers in forested sites had significantly lower bulk density than deforested sites. Low

organic matter content caused a higher bulk density for the soils of the deforested sites. The high soil bulk density also indicated soil compaction due to deforestation. This would ultimately lead to a reduction in soil porosity and a decrease in permeability (Agboola 1994). Hajabbasi et al. (1997) and Liu et al. (2002) also observed higher bulk density in deforested soil. Hajabbasi et al. (1997) suggested that higher bulk density of the deforested sites could result in a lower soil quality.

Table 2. Soil particle size distribution and bulk density between the forested and deforested areas

Soil depth	Land use	Particle size distribution (%)			Bulk density (Mg·m ⁻³)
		Sand	Silt	Clay	
Top	Forest	78 ^a ±0.36	8 ^a ±3.48	14 ^a ±6.91	1.22 ^a ±0.0666
	Deforest	78 ^a ±2.43	10 ^a ±3.36	12 ^a ±9.28	1.37 ^b ±0.0306
Middle	Forest	70 ^a ±23.4	10 ^a ±5.81	20 ^a ±18.0	1.21 ^a ±0.1323
	Deforest	75 ^a ±15.0	8 ^a ±3.25	17 ^a ±12.4	1.46 ^b ±0.0802
Bottom	Forest	65 ^a ±21.4	12 ^a ±9.59	23 ^a ±15.05	1.36 ^a ±0.060
	Deforest	76 ^a ±13.7	7 ^a ±2.54	17 ^a ±12.11	1.58 ^a ±0.369
Grand mean		71 ^a ±76.46	10 ^a ±8.05	19 ^a ±15.52	

Each value is the mean of three replicates. The same letter within each soil depth indicates no significant difference ($p < 0.05$)

Soil chemical characteristics

Soil pH ranged from 3.99 to 4.52 in the soils of the forested sites and 3.62 to 3.98 in the deforested sites (Table 3). Soil pH at all sites decreased with depth. The pH values at top soils and bottom soils of the forested areas were significantly higher in comparison to the deforested sites. Deforestation may have encouraged removal of bases by run-off and leaching. Forest vegetation also circulates bases within the soil profile during nutrient recycling. Deciduous and evergreen forest soils are somewhat richer in Ca²⁺ (Saikh et al. 1998). On the contrary, intensive leaching of bases in barren land enhances reduction in soil pH.

Table 3. Changes of soil chemical properties between the forested and deforested areas

Soil depth	Land use	pH (H ₂ O)	Organic matter(%)	Total N (%)	Available P(mg·kg ⁻¹)
Top	Forest	4.52 ^a ±0.615	1.24 ^a ±0.197	0.14 ^a ±0.0200	4.38 ^a ±5.15
	Deforest	3.98 ^b ±0.410	0.77 ^b ±0.205	0.10 ^b ±0.0153	4.91 ^a ±6.11
Middle	Forest	4.15 ^a ±0.605	0.61 ^a ±0.262	0.08 ^a ±0.0231	3.22 ^a ±3.37
	Deforest	3.64 ^a ±0.517	0.34 ^a ±0.099	0.06 ^a ±0.0200	1.95 ^b ±3.18
Bottom	Forest	3.99 ^a ±0.419	0.25 ^a ±0.0929	0.06 ^a ±0.0306	2.59 ^a ±3.73
	Deforest	3.62 ^b ±0.505	0.13 ^a ±0.0153	0.04 ^a ±0.0208	0.59 ^a ±0.50

Each value is the mean of three replicates. The same letter within each soil depth indicates no significant difference ($p < 0.05$)

The surface soil at all sites had the greatest amount of organic matter. Surface soils in the forested sites contained significantly higher amount of organic matter (1.24%) compared to the deforested sites (0.77%). A number of studies have shown that tropical deforestation lowers soil organic matter (Lugo and Sanchez 1986). Organic matter content of lower layers (middle and bot-

tom depths) did not show any significant difference. Similar results were reported by Hajabbasi et al. (1997). Greater decomposition and removal by erosion might be causes of lower organic matter in the deforested soils.

The surface soil of deforested sites showed significantly lower amount of total nitrogen. The highest content of total nitrogen was observed in forested top soils. Patrick and Smith (1975) reported that total tree harvesting caused the loss of nutrients including nitrogen up to three times compared to conventional logging. In addition to losses from biomass removal, nutrients can be lost from deforested areas by higher soil nutrient mobilization and leaching, when little vegetation is present to take up (Mroz et al. 1985).

In the surface soil, available phosphorus content was lower in the forested soils than that of deforested soils although their difference was not significant. However, in soils of middle portion, available phosphorus contents were significantly higher in forested than deforested soils. Similar observation was reported by Hajabbasi et al. (1997). The available phosphorus content showed a decreasing trend with depth in the forested and deforested sites. Similar results were also found in some soils of Chitragong hill tracts by Chowdhury (2007).

Exchangeable bases and cation exchange capacity

The contents of exchangeable cations and cation exchange capacity (CEC) are presented in Table 4. Exchangeable Ca²⁺ and K⁺ were significantly higher in surface and subsurface soil of the forested sites. Exchangeable Mg²⁺ was higher in all depths of forested areas. On the other hand, exchangeable Na⁺ was not significantly different in any depth of soil. Thus deforestation has considerably removed exchangeable bases of the soil. This could be due to higher organic matter content in the forested soil and higher leaching in the deforested soil. Similar trends of variation in exchangeable cations were reported by Adama and Boyle (1982) and Saikh et al. (1998). However, CEC was not significantly different between soils of the forested and deforested sites and followed a similar trend of decrease with the depths. Forested soils, however, contained higher level of CEC at all depths than deforested areas. Allen (1985) observed that reduction in CEC was 50% higher in the tropical soils than in temperate soils under deforestation. Adejuwon and Ekanade (1987) also reported the losses of 34%–36% in CEC and 19%–50% in exchangeable Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺ in the tropical region due to deforestation.

Conclusion

The impact of deforestation on some physical and chemical characteristics of hill forest in Cox's Bazar and Rangamati districts of Bangladesh was assessed. Deforestation has significantly deteriorated soil quality by increasing bulk density and decreasing soil pH, available phosphorus, exchangeable bases like Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and K. This deterioration would further affect the utilization of these soils for future reforestation. Reforestation and

regular protection may be the best possible way to restore soil productivity in the deforested sites.

Table 4. Changes of soil exchangeable bases and cation exchange capacity (CEC) between the forested and deforested areas

Soil depth	Land use	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	K ⁺	Na ⁺	CEC
		cmolc·kg ⁻¹				cmolc·kg ⁻¹
Top	Forest	2.47 ^a ±	1.15 ^a ±	0.37 ^a ±	0.06 ^a ±	11.85 ^a ±
		1.180	0.552	0.0800	0.0306	0.57
	Deforest	1.89 ^b ±	0.89 ^b ±	0.33 ^b ±	0.08 ^a ±	9.07 ^a ±
Middle	Forest	1.081	0.566	0.0755	0.0321	3.10
		1.51 ^a ±	0.70 ^a ±	0.23 ^a ±	0.07 ^a ±	10.31 ^a ±
	Deforest	0.898	0.203	0.01528	0.0289	2.22
Bottom	Forest	1.04 ^b ±	0.43 ^b ±	0.15 ^b ±	0.05 ^a ±	8.59 ^a ±
		0.719	0.272	0.01528	0.0300	2.64
	Deforest	1.04 ^a ±	0.48 ^a ±	0.20 ^a ±	0.07 ^a ±	9.68 ^a ±
	Forest	0.504	0.176	0.0058	0.0321	1.72
		0.65 ^a ±	0.29 ^b ±	0.16 ^a ±	0.04 ^a ±	8.48 ^a ±
	Deforest	0.280	0.168	0.0458	0.0153	3.11

Each value is the mean of three replicates. The same letter within each soil depth indicates no significant difference ($p < 0.05$)

References

- Adams PW, Boyle JR. 1982. Soil fertility changes following clearcut and whole tree harvesting and burning in central Michigan. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, **46**: 638–640.
- Adejuwon JO, Ekanade O. 1987. Edaphic component of the environment degradation resulting from the replacement of tropical rain forest by field and tree crops in SW Nigeria. *International Tree Crops Journal*, **4**: 269–282.
- Agboola AA. 1994. A recipe for continuous arable crop production in the forest zone of western Nigeria. In: Sanchez PA, Van Houten H (eds), *Alternative to slash-and-burn agriculture*. Symposium ID-6. 15th International Soil Science Congress, Mexico, pp.107–120
- Allen JC. 1985. Soil response to forest clearing in the United States and the tropics: Geological and biological factors. *Biotropica*, **17**: 15–27.
- Amin R, Akonda AW, Neyamat H. 2002. National assessment of forestry restoration policy and practices in South Asia: Bangladesh. IUCN/WWF, 50pp.
- Anonymous. 1992. *Forestry Master Plan-Main Plan*, ADB (TA No.1355-Ban), UNDP/FAO BGD 88/025, 162pp.
- Araki S. 1992. The role of miombo woodland ecosystem in chitemene shifting cultivation in northern Zambia. *Japan InformAB*, **11**: 8–15.
- Araujo QR, Comerford NB, Ogram AV, Al-Agely A, Filho LP, Santos JG. 2005. Soil carbon and physical property changes in Brazilian Coastal Tableland soils with land use following deforestation. *Agroforestry Systems*, **63**(2): 193–198.
- Black CA. 1965. *Methods of Soil Analysis*. American Society of Agronomy, Inc. Publisher, Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A. pp.894–895.
- Blake GR. 1965. *Bulk density*. In: Methods of Soil Analysis. Part 1 (eds. C.A. Black, D.D. Evans, J.L. White. I.E. Enslinger and F.E. Clark). American Society of Agronomy, Inc. Publisher, Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A.
- Biswas SR, Choudhury JK. 2007. Forests and forest management practices in Bangladesh: the question of sustainability. *International Forestry Review*, **9**(2): 627–640 pp.
- Boyle JR. 1975. Whole tree harvesting impact on site quality. Paper presenting at the Tappi Annual Meeting, 24–26 February, New York.
- Brammer H. 1971. *Bangladesh Land Resources Technical Report-3*. AGL: SF, Pak-6, FAO, Rome.
- Chidumayo EN. 1989. Land use, deforestation and reforestation in the Zambian copperbelt. *Land Degradation and Rehabilitation*, **1**: 209–216.
- Chidumayo EN, Kwibisa L. 2003. Effects of deforestation on grass biomass and soil nutrient status in miombo woodland, Zambia. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, **96**: 97–105.
- Chowdhury MSH, Biswas S, Haque SMS, Muhammed N, Koike M. 2007. Comparative analysis of some selected macronutrients of soil orange orchard and degraded forests in Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bangladesh. *Journal of Forest Research*, **18**(1): 27–30.
- Delgado CR, Barcelo G, Parraga J. 1985. Effects of deforestation on the soils of the Antequera region of Malaga, Spain. III. Analysis and evaluation. *Ann Edafol Agrobiol*, **44**: 1015–1027.
- FAO. 2001. *State of the world's forests 2001*, FAO. Rome.
- FAO. 2000. *Forest Resources of Bangladesh Country Report, Rome 2000*. The Forest Resources Assessment Programme; Originated by: Forestry Department. Available at http://www.fao.org/docrep/007/ad104e/AD104E04.htm#P393_24960
- Hajabbasi MA, Jalalian A, Karimzadeh HR. 1997. Deforestation effect on physical and chemical properties, Lordegan, Iran. *Plant and Soil*, **190**: 301–308.
- Hendrickson OQ, Chatarpaul L, Burgess D. 1989. Nutrient cycling following whole-tree and conventional harvest in northern mixed forest. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, **19**: 725–735.
- Hoque AKMF. 1977. *Soil erosion in teak plantation*. In *Proc. of first Bangladesh National Conference on Forestry*, Dhaka, Bangladesh, pp. 80–83.
- Jackson ML. 1973. *Soil Chemical Analysis*. Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N. Jersey, USA. pp.205–226.
- Johnson CE, Johnson AH, Siccama TG. 1991. Whole-tree clearcutting on exchangeable cations and soil acidity. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, **55**: 502–508.
- Liu SL, Fu BJ, Lu YH, Chen LD. 2002. Effects of reforestation and deforestation on soil properties in humid mountainous areas: a case study in Wolong Nature Reserve, Sichuan province, China. *Soil Use and Management*, **18**: 376–380
- Lugo AE, Sanchez MJ. 1986. Land use and organic carbon content of some subtropical soils. *Plant and Soil*, **96**: 185–196.
- Lu D, Moran E, Mauseil P. 2002. Linking Amazonian secondary succession forest growth to soil properties. *Land degradation Division*, **13**: 331–343.
- Minitab Inc. 1996. *Minitab user's guide, release 11*. Minitab, State College, PA.
- Mongabay. 2000. <http://rainforests.mongabay.com/deforestation/2000/Bangladesh.htm>
- Moyo S, O'Keefe P, Sill M. 1993. *The Southern African Environment: Profiles of the SADC Countries*. ETC Foundation/Earthscan Publishers, London, 354 pp.
- Mroz GD, Jurgensen MF, Frederick D.J. 1985. Soil nutrient changes following whole tree harvesting on tree- northern hardwood sites. *Soil Science Society of America*, **49**: 1552–1557.
- Ohta S. 1990. Influence of deforestation on the soils of the Pantabagan area, Central Auzon, Philippines. *Soil Science & Plant Nutrition*, **36**: 561–573.
- Patrick JH, Smith DW. 1975. *Forest management and nutrient cycling in eastern hardwoods*. USDA For. Serv. Res. Pap.ME-4. Northeast For. Exp. Stat. Broomal, PA.
- Rasiah V, Kay BD. 1995. Runoff and soil loss as influenced by selected stability parameter and cropping and tillage practices. *Geoderma*, **68**: 321–329.
- RSS (Reconnaissance Soil Survey). 1976. Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Sadar South and Cox's Bazar Subdivision Chittagong District. Department of Soil Survey.Government of the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh, 5pp
- Sahani U, Behera N. 2001. Impact of deforestation on soil physicochemical characteristics, microbial biomass and microbial activity of tropical soil. *Land Degradation & Development*, **12**: 93–105.
- Saikh H, Varadachari C, Ghosh K. 1998. Effects of deforestation and cultivation on soil CEC and contents of exchangeable bases: A case study in Simlipal National Park, India. *Plant and Soil*, **204**(2): 175–181.
- Vagen TG. 2004. Change in soil quality in relation to deforestation and land use change in the highlands of Madagascar. Available at http://www.cababstractsplus.org/google/abstract_learnmore.asp.
- Walkley A, Black IA. 1934. An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. *Soil Science*, **37**: 29–38.